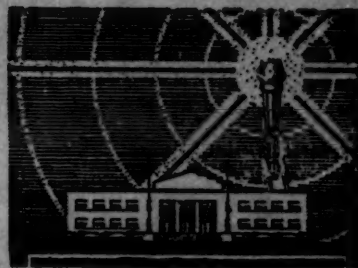


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VOLUME XLVII, NUMBER 7

NOVEMBER, 1956

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The Social Studies

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES does not accept responsibility for the views expressed in articles, reviews, and other contributions which appear in its pages. It provides opportunities for publication of materials which may represent divergent ideas, judgments and opinions.

EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.
Subscription \$3.50 a year, single numbers 50 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Copyright, 1956, McKinley Publishing Co. Entered as second-class matter, October 26, 1909, at Post Office at Philadelphia, Pa., under Act of March 3, 1879

As the Editor Sees It

People whose work involves a good deal of contact with others need a set of rules or guides to go by, so that the contacts will have desirable and proper outcomes. Such guides are especially necessary for people who have some degree of authority, or the function of making decisions that affect others. A good example is the teacher, who really exerts a great deal of power over the lives of other people and their children. The teacher's decision to give a test in arithmetic on Friday may force Dad to give up his plan to take the family to that special movie on Thursday evening. The teacher's request for a Sir Galahad costume for Johnny can upset the household for days. Her decision that Mary's Geography mark is only C instead of the expected B or A can cause a crisis at home.

What guides us in the hundreds of personal decisions we must make? It will be one of three things—principle, policy or prejudice. We can define the first as a guide based on moral truth and right; the second as a guide grounded on experience and convenience; while the third is a guide made up of our assorted likes and dislikes. Principle may dictate that it is dishonest to a child to promote him to a grade for which he is not prepared, but policy may say that retention takes up badly needed space and also causes arguments. We have heard teachers say that they never give a perfect mark on a paper. Is this principle, policy or prejudice speaking?

It is very easy to confuse these three guides in our thinking. One often hears another say,

"It's a matter of principle with me never to . . ." Actually, it's probably policy or prejudice. On many matters the three may coincide—we take a stand because we think it's right, because it's the practical solution, and because we like it. The principal who enforces a ban on drinking at a school dance probably is motivated by all three guides.

The point we want to make is simply that we should clearly understand the difference among the three and act accordingly. The teacher who strictly forbids all movement in her classroom may be acting from either policy or prejudice; she should not delude herself that it is a matter of principle. The importance of the difference is this. Since principle is based on truth and right, we should not veer from it even under pressure. Policy is based on demonstrable common sense and experience, but may properly be changed as conditions change. Prejudice is purely our own, and has no magic quality. He who takes an unswerving and adamant position based on prejudice only, is on slippery ground.

Getting along with others, in school or out, is often a matter of saying "yes" or "no," or of making other decisions. Success often depends on our ability to identify the type of guide our decisions are based on, and our willingness to treat them accordingly. The music teacher who down-grades an Elvis Presley fan "as a matter of principle" is wrong, and so is the teacher who, as a matter of policy, raises Johnny's mark to make him eligible for football. Prejudices, policies and principles do not deserve the same amount of devotion.

Sociology in General Education*

BLAINE E. MERCER

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I

THE NATURE OF LIBERAL EDUCATION

It has been said of Alfred North Whitehead that he was the "greatest teacher ever to hold forth at Harvard University." This remarkable philosopher, mathematician, and humanitarian used to say that the proper function of a university is to treat knowledge imaginatively. He put it in these words:

The justification for a university is that it preserves the connection between knowledge and the zest of life, by uniting the young and the old in the imaginative consideration of learning. The university imparts information, but it imparts it imaginatively. At least, this is the function which it should perform for society.¹

Perhaps I am justified in extending this to say that the purpose of a college or university education in the liberal arts and sciences is to aid the student in the development of the ability and the inclination to be imaginative and creative in his own treatment of knowledge. Whatever fails to aid the student and sustain him in his self-development toward this end may well be said to be not liberal education at all, but some form of training.

I became convinced several years ago that one of the areas of college-level teaching in which an honest and energetic (if not always very productive) attempt was being made to attain an imaginative handling of facts and knowledges is the area of general education in the social sciences. At that time, much hard thinking and creative energy was being spent on the possibly fruitless search for ways and means of "integrating" the diverse principles, theories, methodologies, techniques, knowledges and guesses of the various fields called the Social Sciences. Although I am now con-

vinced that what was then meant by "integration" is an elusive product which can come only as a result of the thinking that goes on in an individual's head—for one cannot "integrate" someone else, and, after all, it is the "integrated person" who was being sought, not "integrated subject-matter"—still the hard seeking resulted in some new slants on methods of college teaching in the social sciences, some new organizations of subject materials, and, for many teachers and students, something of a revitalization of learning and teaching experiences.

Several years of working as a sociologist in general education programs have convinced me that sociologists are in an especially advantageous position to make contributions to a liberal education through such general programs as most of us here have in our own colleges. Further, since so many of us are primarily concerned with teaching and the educational process—we are teachers, first of all and researchers second, most of us, whether we would have it or no—we have, indeed, a moral responsibility to investigate these general courses, and, if it seems wise on the basis of knowledge about them, to work in them and contribute to them wherever we can.

II

THE NATURE OF GENERAL EDUCATION IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

By general education in the social sciences, I mean those programs of study which disregard the traditional boundaries of different disciplines in the search for facts and attitudes useful in extending the horizons of knowledge and in the solving of problems which grow out of social living. General educators typically profess—whether or not they practice—an engaging respect for the personality of the individual student, while, at the same time, claiming to guard against "runaway progressivism" in educational practice. General edu-

* Paper read before the Sociology Section of the Colorado-Wyoming Social Science Association, Greeley, Colorado, April 29, 1955.

cation in the social sciences is broad—as broad as all the separate disciplines combined, and perhaps broader than the sum of them because of the combination.

At the University of Colorado, where a general program has been in effect for nearly a decade, students draw from the physical anthropologist in the study of the development of man as a physical being, from the sociologist in the study of social relationships and behavior patterns, and from the political scientist and economist in the study of political and economic institutions and behaviors. The emphasis is on broad themes and principles, rather than on detailed factual items (although there is an abundance of them, too, as any student will volunteer) and on contemporary usefulness. All these things, it is hoped, are given meaning, perspective, and a spirit of reality through the illustrations of history, which serve as a kind of cement, binding the course materials into a unit. Further, there is a genuine—although far from successful in these days of burgeoning enrollments—attempt to keep classes small in order that some individual attention to the student's personality development may be provided. It is suggested that such programs as this can do something to furnish the broad background which is necessary, not only to the solution of the problems of living as a citizen in today's frenetic world, but in professional education, as well.

III

THE DEVELOPING BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES

There is little need here to discuss the merits and dangers of specialization (or overspecialization, depending on your point of view) in the separate social sciences. In sum, it may be noted, as one writer recently put it,

... that specialization has been building up to an impasse. It demands more and more painstaking devotion to increasingly obscure and minor points. The process would eventually become intolerable in even the most socially static society, but as today our civilization is in the midst of accelerated change, it means that our schools are being asked to do the impossible: to integrate and synthesize culture . . . and at the same time to give their principal attention to professional instruction which grows hourly more narrow and detailed.²

This may be the case, but few social scientists would deny the necessity of specialization in research if scientific knowledge of human relations is to be advanced. Indeed, whatever we may think of it, specialization is going to continue to be the pattern of almost all disciplines well into the future. The problem is, then, how to synthesize the results of our specialized researches in such a way that a genuine theory of human behavior is evolved, and—on another level—approach social science knowledge in such a fashion that our students can gain some reasonable understanding of the contributions of all the social sciences. In the first instance, the emerging human relations studies—perhaps moving in the direction of a true “science of social man”—seems to be one answer to our research dilemma, and the general education courses one answer to our teaching problem.

The attempts to develop a unified “science of social man” have taken a number of patterns. Perhaps the most typical is the Harvard pattern, where the Departments of Anthropology, Psychology, and Sociology were, some years back, combined into a Department of Human Relations. There, in addition to what is admittedly specialized study within the separate disciplines, there has been considerable interdisciplinary research and teaching. The undertaking at Yale to cross-index references to as many known cultures as possible—the Human Relations Area Files—may be cited as yet another approach; and the Human Relations Area studies at New York University is yet another.

From the point of view of the sociologist, the relations of various other disciplines to our own in the development of a science of social man are interesting and suggestive for our consideration of our own role in liberal education. I shall discuss these relationships very briefly.

Anthropology. As has often been said, anthropological data are sometimes the nearest thing we have to experimental and comparative data in sociology. Although the emergence of laboratory, experimental sociology challenges this statement, a look at almost any sociology textbook will indicate the extent to which our field has relied upon anthropology—particularly ethnology—for data and illustration in teaching.

Anthropology has a wide range of materials on the behavior of man, wider, indeed, than that of any other discipline. Sociology, on the other hand, is developing the tools and techniques for handling them. The utilization of a sociological approach to the study of ethnological and ethnographic materials is well illustrated by the Human Relations Area Files now being established in universities and colleges across the nation.

Sociologists are certainly going to have to cross check among many cultures the theories of human behavior they are currently evolving. But preliminary testing can be done in our own society. In short, anthropology is perhaps destined to be a great testing ground for the universality of theories of human behavior, while sociology, for a time at least, seems best able to deal with what Robert K. Merton has called theories of the "middle range."

Psychology. Whatever is known about individual behavior is of concern to the sociologist. Some scholars even go so far as to hold that an integration of sociology and psychology must be made if a science of human behavior is to develop. To this date, as John Gillin points out, the psychologist has tended to reify individual behavior, the organism, and units of behavior, such as the S-R sequence. It can also be maintained that the sociologist has tended to reify groups, institutions, and social organization.

The integration of sociology and psychology finds expression, of course, in the entire field of social psychology, which explores, among other things, the relationship between individual behavior and group membership, and in which field some of the most exacting scientific work in all the social sciences is currently being done.

Economics. Not since the disturbing days of Thorstein Veblen has it been excusable for economists to ignore other phases of social life than the economic. Sociology and economics are converging in various areas of study, notably the analysis of the relations of economic structure and economic institutions and other social structures and institutions. An example of this convergence is current work on the connections of family structure and economic structure. Social psychologists are now turning their attention to the matter of motivation to

economic activities: perhaps the single most pressing need of economic theory at this point is a new, workable psychology of motivation to replace once and for all the pleasure-pain psychology of classical economic theory. Other convergences of sociology, economics, and psychology are represented by rapidly expanding studies of industrial sociology and the bureaucratization of economic associations.

Political Science. Sociology, psychology, and political science are now merging in several areas, notably the study of the nature and motivation of political behavior, such as voting patterns, in the study of the development of personality structures which have bearing on political organization and behavior (the authoritarian personality, leaders, and followers, for example), in the study of the genesis of bureaucracy and its effects on personality and the functioning of social institutions, and, in general, in the analysis of the interrelations of institutions.

History. Sociology and the other behavioral sciences cannot afford to ignore the field of history — art and not science though it may be, as most historians claim — for time is an important element in social behavior. From the historian, the sociologist receives an impression of the importance of time perspective in human affairs, and, in turn, may help the historian in seeing the usefulness of looking for patterns of social life. (Herbert J. Muller's *The Uses of the Past*³ is an excellent and fascinating example of what I would call "sociological history.") Finally, the great mass of data, ideas, and theory which appear in the tomes of history provide the sociologist and other behavioral scientists with a fertile field for investigation or, at least, with suggestions for research and indications as to where to look for data.

Method. Most especially, there is convergence among all these fields with respect to method — not even excluding history. The general recognition of this fact is reflected in the common practice of somewhere (generally at the beginning) in the general or survey course including an extended discussion of science and the scientific method in the social fields. This is so generally accepted that little more needs to be said on the subject. However, one point needs making: that a common method in the social

sciences necessarily requires a collective terminology. The development of the behavioral sciences as a unit, and their teaching through general education courses demand a sorting-out and ordering of concepts and terminology about the behavior of man. Only then can we communicate with one another. But communication must be *about* something, so, first of all we need to think out what are our common concerns; what ought we to think about and talk about together? This has been the purpose of this paper. The conclusions are not difficult to derive at this point: there are areas of common interest, subject-matter fields, perhaps, where the artificial boundaries between sociology, anthropology, psychology, and other disciplines are being erased. It seems reasonable to suggest that general education curricula and courses in the social sciences may profitably be organized around these common interests. The following are some of them:⁴

The nature of the human organism. The human organism conforms to certain general principles which govern all living things: for example, all require nourishment. Since man is an organism, any study of man must reckon with this basic fact, must take into consideration the principles common to organisms. For the social sciences, as for other sciences, there is much to learn about the relationship of the structure and functioning of the human organism and its relationship to social behavior. Still unresolved, for example, is the extent to which human behavior is organically determined.

The nature and patterns of human behavior. As I have already noted, some say that a science of social man is impossible until psychology resolves its problems of individual behavior. We are now developing a systematic knowledge of what organisms can and cannot do, however. We are learning the significance of the presence or the absence of certain hereditary factors. The study of the nature of human behavior is no longer one which can be pursued in the isolation of the psychology laboratory, for individual behavior does not occur in isolation most usually. Here is an important area of convergence, one in which the psychologist, the biologist and the social scientists may profitably pool their resources. It, too, is a logical area of study in general education.

Human interaction patterns. A knowledge of the organism alone, or of the isolated individual and his characteristics alone hardly suffices for an understanding of the ways people actually react with others of their own species. The psychologist now studies behavior in terms of the patterns of interaction which occur everywhere in social life: dominance-submission, leadership-followership, conflict-cooperation, etc.: all concepts developed by sociologists and anthropologists.

The nature of groups. Traditionally, the sociologist, anthropologist, and the other social scientists have been primarily concerned with groups and group behavior. Psychology, biology, and medicine, to mention only three, are currently studying behavior of individuals in terms of the groups to which they belong. We have thus far not gone very far in designating exactly what is meant by such concepts as interest groups, age groups, economic groups, and occupational groups, or, at least, in spelling out the nature of "group-goals" if they exist. We need much more work of an interdisciplinary sort on social groups; but there is little doubt that this is an important point of convergence in the social sciences and one which lends itself to study in general education courses.

Culture. Since the concept of culture, by definition, covers all man's social products, content studies of culture invariably draw upon disciplines other than sociology and anthropology: economics, religion, politics, art, and literature, for example. The use of the culture concept in general education courses almost inevitably leads to interdisciplinary contact.

Social structure. The organization and composition of groups and societies may—as in some aspects of population study—be separated from the study of culture. There has been a tendency, however, for the study of social structure and the study of culture to be combined, as today the study of culture and personality structure is being melded. Sociology, here again, cuts across psychology, anthropology, economics, government, and other fields.

Personality. Today, almost every discipline professes an interest in personality, its genesis, and its structure. Few areas of convergence of the sciences of man offer such a fruitful field for study in general education.

Symbolization and communication. Probably all students of human behavior would agree that a basic feature of social life is intercommunication by means of abstract symbols. The problems of symbolization and communication entwine several disciplines: especially sociology, linguistics, psychology, economics, and semantics, as recent studies indicate.

As I see it, the field of history is valuable in general education courses or curricula primarily in that it can provide examples, descriptions, case study materials, and, above all, a sense of continuity, of time perspective, in social life. And, of course, through the teaching in all the areas just mentioned ought to run a common care and concern for methodology in the collection, presentation, and interpretation of data.

These eight areas in which sociology converges with other disciplines are suggested study units for the organization of general education courses for lower division students;

they are not the only ones which could be devised. But a course organized about them, with specific material selected carefully, with an eye to convergence of fields, and well taught, ought to be a more valuable experience to student and teacher alike than the too common pot-boiler survey: a bit of this and a bit of that thrown into a practically indigestible academic stew. The beauty of it is that these areas of study are already—by accident or otherwise—largely integrated, and, for once, we can forget the word.

¹ Alfred North Whitehead, *The Aims of Education*, Mentor Edition, New American Library, New York, 1949, p. 97.

² David B. Hawk, "Specialization in American Higher Education and the 'General Education' Movement," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, vol. 28, September, 1954, pp. 21-22.

³ Herbert J. Muller, *The Uses of the Past*, Mentor Edition, New American Library, New York, 1954.

⁴ Based upon ideas in John Gillin and others, *For a Science of Social Man*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1954.

Overpopulation and Poverty

LAWRENCE F. PISANI

New Haven, Connecticut

The population branch of the United Nations Secretariat reports what is technically known as a "population explosion" occurring in many parts of the world. Since 1945 world population has grown by 300 million persons and is steadily increasing at the rate of 35 million per year. Every effective drug, every new medical and public health technique has reduced disease, relieved human suffering—and lowered the death rate.

It is small wonder, therefore, that students of population, realizing that improved methods of production and distribution seem only with difficulty to keep pace with the increase in persons to be supplied, have been led to trace their study of the issue back to 1798. It was in this year that the curate of Albury in Surrey, then thirty-two years old, brought to a focal point ideas of such eighteenth century reformers as Jeremy Bentham, Robert Owen, and William Godwin. These writers had struggled

to find a solution for the violent social changes which the age of power had begun to demand in England. But Thomas Robert Malthus did not accept the idealistic doctrines traceable to Jean Jacques Rousseau, as these other writers had done. In the speeches and writings of the eighteenth century reformers these doctrines were reduced to abstract principles, statements of policy which, if observed, would direct mankind to the promised land.¹

Rather than take refuge in idealism, Malthus faced the issue with a directness that had a sobering effect on his contemporaries. He called his statement *An Essay on the Principles of Population as It Affects the Future of Society, with Remarks on the Speculations of Mr. Godwin, M. Condorcet, and Other Writers*. He issued a new and greatly enlarged edition five years later in 1803 with four later revisions between then and 1826.

Malthus stated the problem of society as a question of "how to provide for those who are in want in such a manner as to prevent a continual increase in their numbers and of the proportion which they bear to the whole society."² He believed that, since "the passion between the sexes" is strong and constant, there is an inevitable tendency for the numbers of persons to exceed the food supply. His conclusion: a high birth rate, or "overpopulation," is the basic cause of poverty.

The relation between population increase and subsistence was given a very definite and striking form by Malthus who said that population tended to increase in geometrical ratio, while subsistence tended to increase in arithmetical ratio only. Population, when unchecked, goes on doubling itself every 25 years. At this rate, population would increase to 64 times its original size in 150 years, while its subsistence would increase but 7 times. While it is true that, under favorable conditions, large segments of the world's population have shown that they can double themselves in even less than 25 years, this has never occurred anywhere on earth for a long period of time. The geometric progression is obviously somehow held in check.

This was realized by Malthus who described these checks as positive or preventive. The latter category would be exemplified by moral restraint and delaying of marriage. Malthus was opposed to prostitution and certain other forms of behavior which he considered to be vices. It was Malthus's contention, however, that the preventive checks were insufficient to keep the rate of increase of any people under control. Therefore, man was doomed to continue suffering from the positive checks of hunger, disease, war, and other ills.

We know, of course, that today knowledge is available which would enable the world's population and available food supplies to be kept in balance. Even in Malthus's day, however, while the acceptance of his gloomy predictions was most widespread, changes in the Western world were beginning to disprove his theory. The nineteenth century tended to verify his statement that population could be expected to increase geometrically. But, because of rapid expansion in the New World, along with the development of manufacturing and transport-

ing facilities, the food growing areas of the world increased at an even faster rate for nearly a hundred years. That is, while Malthus's first principle appeared to be correct, his second was contradicted by unexpected (by him) conditions even within his own lifetime.³

Then, shortly after Malthus's death in 1834, changes began to occur which affected both the positive and the preventive checks on population. Epidemic diseases, capable of wiping out large percentages of the population in Malthus's day, began to come under control. Modern methods of control of conception came more slowly, but spread gradually into all parts of the Western world. As a result the predicted misery and vice did not materialize. In fact, currently there are studies which indicate that not only has the food supply more than kept pace with population growth, but that there has also been an improvement in the quality of the food consumed.⁴

Malthus and his followers saw overpopulation as the basic cause of poverty, reasoning that the greater the number of persons per square mile, the less able the land to maintain them. He knew conditions in England and made the error of considering other countries independently of each other. The present advantages of "hindsight" reveal many other errors. For example, Africa, Latin America, even Asia are less heavily populated—considered as a whole—than are areas regarded as "advanced." By looking at each country separately he did not take the country's total resources into account. England, even in his day, was leading the world in manufacturing. Yet it also led in colonies which could provide food in exchange for manufactured products. If New York City were isolated, it would starve, not because of the population density but because of the breakdowns in communication and transportation. But distress in the supplying areas would be equally severe.

One of the principal checks on population growth which Malthus named was war. Although he believed that overpopulation was one of the causes of war, it has more often been used as an excuse. Germany had colonies, yet comparatively few Germans emigrated. The German, instead, used a curiously circular type of argument: the country favored rapid population growth, so that their armies might be

strong and well manned. Strong armies would enable the country to fight for greater *Lebensraum*. Why did they need more room on the earth? To take care of the greater population. War was not a result of overpopulation. Instead, overpopulation was deliberately induced in order to provide an excuse for war. Malthus could have known as well as anyone today that wars are often deliberately promoted to satisfy personal ambitions. At least he was in a position to make this observation between 1800 and 1815.

Malthus's stand on birth control suggests a fundamental conflict within him. The only kind of real control which he could find acceptable was that of voluntary moral restraint which could be accomplished only by late marriage and continence of married persons. All else was either vice or prostitution. Malthus did not expect much from the approved preventive checks and hence remained profoundly pessimistic.

The Neo-Malthusians who came later supported birth control as a means of regulating population growth and poverty. They would have been condemned by Malthus for what he regarded as the promotion of vice. Twentieth century conditions in the United States do not necessarily support the logic of the Neo-Malthusians. In 1933 the birth rate was 16.3 while in 1953 the birth rate was 24.7. A possible conclusion then is that a high birth rate seems to be the result of prosperity. The birth rate of the United States is higher now than that of Japan, Italy, Spain, the Philippines, and only slightly less than India. In spite of this rapid growth the United States still has room and prosperity.

The term overpopulation is being used and perhaps abused considerably by social scientists, reformers, and statesmen. It has been cited as the primary if not the sole cause of poverty. Yet, no scholar has devised an adequate formula to tell us when we are really dealing with an area containing too many people. Many of us fail to realize that overpopulation is a relative rather than a fixed concept. In addition to the difficulties involved in working with a concept as loosely defined and used as overpopulation, there is another unfortunate aspect to be considered. By stressing excessive population as the cause of poverty,

other factors are overlooked and certain social reforms are ignored or minimized. We would like to offer alternative hypotheses as to the causes of poverty.

One of these causes is disease, including low general health and illnesses caused by parasites. The tremendous cost to nations and individuals for the treatment and prevention of disease is common knowledge. It is obvious that if large numbers of persons cannot work, they continue as consumers but do nothing about producing in order to compensate for the food and material they use. Disease can produce the effects of overpopulation by reducing production.

A second and equally obvious breeder of poverty is war. War is entirely destructive. If the incredible military budgets of World Wars I and II had been used on less favored areas of the earth, Asia, Africa, and Latin America could have been raised to an economic level comparable with that of the United States in 1937. Recognition of the fact by this government shows in the foreign aid program devoted to the purpose of helping other peoples to help themselves. War is not a law of nature and is not a cure of overpopulation; war is due to historical circumstances and causes poverty.

The third of the conditions which produce poverty quite independently of overpopulation is the improper distribution of land among the people of an area. The whole system of land tenure in Kenya Colony in Africa has driven the natives deeper and deeper into poverty. Their land, heavily eroded, lies in the hill country. But not that of the white residents. In Asia the tenant farmer pays fifty per cent of his crop to the land owner. Out of the remainder he takes his living and the cost of production. The great estates of Latin America lie in the flat country, good for the grazing of fat cattle. The small land holders cultivate what they can out of the top soil remaining on the hill sides.

Closely related to the system of land tenure as a cause of poverty is the failure in many areas to coordinate the activities of labor, management, and capital to the best advantage. As a result a wide gap lies between the agricultural possibilities of an area and the yield in actual practice. Managers of farm lands may be unaware of the best in current technology or

they may be unable or unwilling to make use of it. Despite modern communication there are still areas where improved farming techniques are unknown. Some large land holders, already sufficiently wealthy, remain satisfied with ancient methods of cultivation. Finally, unsound tax policies, such as in the Soviet Union, may impede agricultural improvements because the profit is not allowed to go to the men who have personally earned it. When with these obstacles are combined careless or primitive methods of transportation and storage, there is no wonder that so many people live close to a subsistence level.

Foreign investments in Asia and Africa are too limited. Only in the United States' foreign aid program does the money go into construction and industry calculated to build up the economy of these countries. Private investors are concerned with the immediate returns on their money. Their funds tend to go into the extractive industry. A large share of the profit under these circumstances flows continually out of the country.

In some sections of the world even the most enlightened planning runs into difficulties presented by social and economic customs. The people of India do not eat beef, but they allow gaunt and undernourished sacred cows to wander across the land unmolested. They will not even defend their crops against the monkeys which make great inroads on their fields.

In China superstition often calls for the burial of the dead in land which is most fertile. As a result the good land, not too plentiful in terms of the needs of the people, is still further restricted.

Poverty may, in other words, be caused by many conditions other than overpopulation. It even serves to perpetuate itself once the expectation of poverty has taught the people not to look beyond their daily struggle for survival. Economically unable to secure an alternative source of fuel the people of India utilize dung which could be put to better use as a fertilizer in agriculture. In short, it is possible to say that poverty is a cause of poverty.

The claim that overpopulation is the basic cause of poverty may be challenged by the arguments given above. There are other factors that need to be taken into consideration. Realizing this, we may be able to achieve a better perspective as to the problems involved in poverty. In this way we place ourselves in a more strategic position in offering possible solutions and reform.

¹ Cook, Robert C., *Human Fertility, The Modern Dilemma*, William Sloan Associates, New York, 1951, pp. 48-49.

² Cook, R. C., *op. cit.*, pp. 49-50.

³ Darwin, Charles Galton, *The Next Million Years*, Doubleday and Co., Garden City, 1953, p. 32.

⁴ Bennett, M. K., "Population and Food Supply: The Current Scare," *The Scientific Monthly*, Vol. 68, No. 1 (January 1949), pp. 22-24.

The Possible Impact of Social Science

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The story has been told many times of the opposition (until the present century) to the development of the physical and biological sciences. What opposition remains is, on the whole, limited to certain segments of the population and directed at certain applications and implications of those sciences rather than against their basic views and general procedures. Familiar also are the effects of scientific development: higher levels of living, longer

and healthier lives, a changed outlook on the world: no longer are natural phenomena feared. The physical sciences triumphed over opposing forces, in large measure, because of their ability to offer these material improvements and more efficient means of solving problems.

The sciences dealing with human behavior are now in a stage of development which may be roughly comparable to that of the physical

sciences in the seventeenth century. Such comparisons are difficult because of the difficulty of applying the same standards to two different fields of knowledge, but the comparison offered is widely accepted. The characteristics of an early stage of development include limited ability to predict events, the restricted range of accepted theories, popular uncertainty over the validity of scientific statements, and difficulty in applying scientific principles in action. The social sciences are also encountering opposition, often from the same sources as other sciences experienced a century and more ago. We are not concerned here with the reasons for this opposition. Instead, we ask: What is likely to happen if the social sciences succeed in overcoming present obstacles? What might be some of the consequences of the development of a more comprehensive and reliable body of social science knowledge?

The answers to such questions cannot be stated with any high degree of certainty. They must be based on observed effects of social science to date, on comparisons with past consequences of physical science, and on logical analysis of social science knowledge and method. The answers suggested here refer to general ways of thinking and behaving, not to specific courses of action which might be developed by social science for dealing with contemporary problems. We are not raising the question of whether social science will be allowed to develop. Nor are we considering the very real possibility that social science knowledge may be used by groups within the society to control the behavior of others, for purposes which have little to do with science itself. The pattern we are seeking to trace consists of trends which are related to either (a) the basic scientific way of solving problems: an attitude of critical inquiry and experiment, testing propositions in terms of their ability to predict and control events and to make experience meaningful; or (b) the basic knowledge which has been established in social science to date. It is recognized that the extent to which these trends materialize will be influenced by many factors outside of science.

The basic attitude or approach of the social scientist, like that of the physical scientist, is on the side of reason rather than tradition, inquiry rather than authority — although indi-

vidual scientists may hold specific views to the contrary of this. Thus science is generally a source of support for change and innovation. The scientist's stress on free inquiry and unrestricted communication is in fundamental agreement with the characteristics of the liberal, "open" society. The effect of social science here should be similar to that of physical science.

The effect of the *content* of science on general outlook has varied from time to time. In the eighteenth century, scientific views were an important factor in the support of revolutionary movements dedicated to the rights of man and the possibility of progress based on reason. In the first half of the nineteenth century, conspicuous progress in the natural history and collecting phases of science produced a greater conservative emphasis: more concern for what actually exists. Later, materialistic theories viewed man and history as the product of a complex of impersonal forces, perhaps developing in a predetermined sequence toward an identifiable goal (as in the case of the Marxist vision of a classless society), but without the possibility of effective human intervention to alter the process. Perhaps recent scientific advances which emphasize the inevitable creative role of the scientist in the conduct of research and the formulation of theory are more compatible with the liberal humanistic view of man as a dynamic agent in his environment. All of these interpretations of the meaning of science have undoubtedly been exaggerated by some. The effect of the content of the social sciences remains to be seen, since such content is so far very little developed. Perhaps they will be able to benefit from the history of other sciences.

Individual and Group

Social science knowledge might lead us to make more adequate distinctions between personal and social behavior. Where behavior affects only the acting individual, or affects others only by virtue of their definitions or valuations of the behavior, one would expect a minimum of social regulation. Matters of speech, smoking, or dress might be included in this category. Where the effects of behavior are confined to a particular social group, whose members accept the consequences, have a voice in the control of the group, and are free to

leave it, outside control would be minimal. Examples here are forms of marriage, sexual behavior, non-commercial gambling. Where behavior affects a large portion of the society, a greater degree of social control would be expected. Instances of this include production of commodities for use by others, conditions of work, communication by means of mass media.

Behavior of the first two classes seems to be more important for a feeling of personal freedom than behavior of the third class, although this impression is difficult to substantiate and may have many exceptions. At least there appears to be greater resentment at restrictions on behavior in the first two groups. Where behavior in those groups now seems to have widespread effects, it is primarily because of attitudes of approval or disapproval, often expressed in legal restrictions or prohibitions, taken by many persons towards such behavior. It is precisely such attitudes that would tend to disappear under the impact of social science. Where behavior is harmful to the acting individual, society would rely on educational rather than punitive measures. We would have, then, a form of ethics with decisions of increasing reliability, based on consequences of actions.

An outgrowth of this distinction between personal and social behavior would be the achievement of a more adequate solution to the problem of relationship between individual and group. It has long been realized that the individual is inevitably related to a number of social groups, and that without such relationships the development of modern culture would be quite impossible. On the other hand, many are concerned that excessive attachment to the group may be a threat to individuality and creativeness. A recognition of the sort described between personal and social behavior will serve to define the role of the group, and the role of society, in relation to the individual. (This personal-social classification is best thought of as a continuum, of course, rather than as sharply demarcated classes.)

We believe that this differentiation of areas of behavior which are subject to various degrees of social control is reliably based on knowledge gained of human behavior. Particularly, a study of social control in other societies suggests that some aspects of behavior require regulation in the interests of

social welfare, while others may be left quite unrestricted. The amount of control placed on any particular behavior may vary considerably from one society to another. The idea that the *consequences* of behavior (rather than anything else about it) should determine the degree of its regulation is based on the general scientific outlook. It is an extension of the scientific practice of operational definition from the laboratory to the social order. Behavior is defined by the difference it makes. Study will reveal whether any given type of behavior has consequences primarily individual or social in nature; upon this knowledge, a rational basis for social control, as outlined above, can be established.

It should be noted also that this delimitation of roles, accompanied by the availability of alternative courses of action, increases the frequency and importance of personal choice. Where knowledge of a wide range of alternatives is available, and the individual does not feel internally or externally compelled to make any particular choice, a condition exists deserving the name of freedom. Social science, therefore, may increase the possibility of freedom.

Decision Making

Another possible impact of social science is the removal of some problems from the area of ideological decision to that of scientific decision. Thus such problems as whether public or private ownership is more desirable in a given situation, or what restrictions should be placed on international trade, would be decided by objective analysis of the consequences of the courses of action proposed, rather than by relationship to political ideology. This is not to say that all problems would be subject to scientific decision, but only that an increasing proportion of the socially significant ones would be. Unless the scientific way of thinking becomes diffused among much of the population, this change might be accompanied by a concentration of the decision-making process in small groups of experts. This would not necessarily be a reduction of democracy, however, for it must be admitted that decisions now made on such matters are not as democratic as they seem but rather are concentrated in groups which are dominant in the social structure for reasons which usually have little to do with expert knowledge.

So far as a scientific way of approaching problems becomes widespread, one would expect that people would become increasingly suspicious of attempts to influence them by the use of irrational appeals. Persons using such appeals, whether in politics, religion, or business, might find their influence declining. Demagoguery might be a source of amusement rather than concern. The use of myth as a means of explanation would show a further decline. Already, myth is seldom used among educated persons in explaining physical phenomena. Our models of personal success are often of a mythological character; our concept of the national state partakes of the mythological when it is viewed as an object of worship or as having an existence superior to that of the inhabitants who compose it; we frequently use non-rational, non-verifiable standards as reasons for the existence or rightness of our beliefs and conduct. The decline of irrational appeal is a consequence of scientific attitude; the decline of myth follows not only from that attitude but from an understanding of the nature of myth itself as a human creation.

Institutions and Symbols

A related change of fundamental importance would be a shift in attitude or outlook towards ideas and institutions. They would be regarded as experimental devices, devoid of any magical character, to be evaluated by their efficacy in promoting human goals. This is no threat to the basic uncertainty and wonder of the universe, or to the thrills of love and discovery. The "disenchantment" which some see as a consequence of science is directed, not at the mysteries of the world, but at man's attempts to fathom those mysteries. It is the attitude that man's ideologies and symbols have a special sacrosanct character that comes into conflict with science. They will be seen as tools for the organization and interpretation of experience, evaluated in terms of their efficiency in accomplishing that purpose, subject to conscious modification in the light of new knowledge.

The Culture Pattern

Implied in the changes outlined so far is another. If the changes described were established, we should find a willingness to admit error and to learn from the experience of

others. This is a change that would also be fostered by the basically cooperative, non-ethnic character of scientific endeavor. The chief product of this socialized learning is culture: shared patterns of thought and action. Social science may lead to a culture more adequate for human purposes than any that have existed before. It offers the possibility of a culture based on a foundation of reliable knowledge about human needs and ways of satisfying them. The continued development of such a body of knowledge requires the development of efficient means of communication: not only technological devices for transmitting and recording information, but means to minimize bias in the content of communication and to assure availability of adequate information whenever it is needed. These are problems of social organization and psychology, rather than of the physical technology of communication.

In such a culture, the criteria of improvement, progress, and self-correction which we have come to accept in material technology might be developed in social institutions. If, for example, the standard of efficiency, now applied to physical aspects of production, were applied to its social aspects, we might expect changes to occur in economic institutions which could be called "progress" with reference to satisfaction of human needs. Application of the standard on this broader scale would require that consideration be given to many more aspects of production than those usually considered in accounting records. Such factors as employee welfare and morale, consumer welfare, public health, and rate of use of natural resources must enter into any comprehensive evaluation of economic practices. Similar standards could be applied to other institutions.

The social sciences are indeed a threat to some cherished ideas and practices — as were the physical sciences. It is by no means certain that they will succeed. They may succeed in spite of opposition if we realize that they can offer a means of achieving a better society, a more efficient economy, a more peaceful world order; that they can offer a more adequate understanding of man and his world. One other qualification is called for: we must be willing to put forth the effort required for developing a new body of knowledge.

Some Trends in Secondary American History Textbooks Organization

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What are the trends in the organization of recent high school American History textbooks? Since textbooks are usually written for the educational market, they should reflect the current demands of educators; however, as evidenced by the abundance of literature on the subject of textbook improvement, there seems to be considerable lag between the books coming from the press and the desired text. The aim of this study was to gain some insight into the organizational trends for American History textbooks used in the nation's secondary schools.

The problem was approached on a limited scale by studying five high school American History textbooks with original publication dates of 1950 or later. These texts were all published by known publishing houses, and the actual books were obtained from the Secondary Curriculum Laboratory at Indiana University. Listed here are the books that were used in the study:

1. Bining, Arthur C.; Martin, Asa E.; and Wolf, Morris, *This Our Nation*, D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., New York, 1950, 774 pp.
2. Muzzey, David Saville, *A History of Our Country*, Ginn and Company, Boston, 1950, 643 pp.
3. Quillen, I. James, and Krug, Edward, *Living in Our America*, Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, 1953, 752 pp.
4. Roberts, Myrtle, *Pattern for Freedom*, The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia, 1953, 680 pp.
5. Todd, Lewis Paul, and Curti, Merle, *America's History*, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1950, 866 pp.

The writer selected 14 broad general topics or criteria covering the field of American His-

tory on which to rate or analyze the books. The basis of selection for these topics was the writer's judgment derived from his experience as an American History teacher and from suggestions found in various related studies. The selected topics were:

1. Discovery and Exploration
2. Colonial Period
3. American Revolution
4. Development of the Nation
5. Westward Movement
6. Civil War and Reconstruction
7. Industrialization and Big Business
8. Overseas Expansion
9. Era of Reform
10. Period of the World Wars
11. Great Depression
12. Post War World
13. Technology
14. Cultural History

A common procedure used in analyzing textbooks is to reduce the raw data to percentages. Since this study was concerned with determining the amount of emphasis placed on each of the 14 topics, percentages were used for comparing the relative space assigned each topic. In collecting the data, the technique employed was to skim through each of the five textbooks and to record the number of pages devoted to each of the selected 14 topics. Also, a check was made to see how many pages were devoted exclusively to study aids, and, finally, the systems of organization used in the five books were determined.

According to the findings of this study, the topics receiving the greatest percentage of space were: Development of the Nation, Period of the World Wars, and Cultural History. The topic, Development of the Nation, probably re-

ceived the high space ranking it did in the study because of the manner in which the investigator lumped a large segment of American history. This segment included from the end of the Revolution to the appearance of the problems over slavery which accompanied westward expansion. The period is normally divided into two or more topics, but the points of division vary from author to author. To overcome the difficulty, this entire span of our history was treated as a single period; nevertheless, there is considerable significance in the amount of space devoted to this era of United States history by all of the texts. It has been suggested in the social studies literature that here is a place where the coverage might be reduced in length without destroying the quality and meaningfulness of the historical record; therefore, it is important to note that these writers have continued to allot a considerable amount of space to the period.

The second high percentage topic, Period of the World Wars, is fairly easy to explain, for in line with one theory of history the investigator collected the two world wars and the intervening period into one large topic. Naturally, such a group would take up a considerable amount of space in a textbook; moreover, it is natural that a considerable amount of space would be assigned to this period of our history which has had such a direct affect on the immediate present.

The topic, Cultural History, which received the highest percentage of space in the books was of considerable interest, for it showed an apparent trend in American History textbook writing. Many of the earlier research studies on textbooks made pleas for more space being allotted to cultural history, and the data here indicated that these pleas seemed to have been answered.

Closer inspection of the data revealed three other pertinent facts. One of the textbooks presented no material on the first topic, Discovery and Exploration; however, it did assign more pages to the next topic, Colonial Period, than did the other books. Inspection proved that even if the earlier period was not formally covered, it was included under the second topic by combining or telescoping the two topics. Here was another place where there had been some discussion in social studies circles on the

possibility of reducing the space devoted to the Pre-Revolutionary Period of this country's history. It was noteworthy that only one author out of the five tried this. It may indicate a lag from theory to practice, or it may represent a conscious resistance to the idea.

A second less obvious point of interest was the treatment of the topic, Industrialization and Big Business. Here there was a marked spread in the percentages of pages used in the books analyzed. The value of covering this period in detail has been questioned by some social studies teachers. It was a time of rapid business and industrial expansion which overshadowed the corrupt politics and inactive foreign policy that typified the period; hence, it has been suggested that material on the political and diplomatic activities of the era could be reduced by handling them only as they affected the dominating theme, the rise of big business. It would seem that there was no agreement among these authors as to the relative amounts of space that should be given this topic, but it was equally evident that no definite trend had developed here to reduce the emphasis placed on the period.

The last of the less obvious inferences which the investigator found in the data related to the space allotted the depression of the 1930's and the New Deal. History textbooks published in the latter part of that period frequently used considerable amounts of space in presenting the details of that era. In these five books, the percentage of space given this topic was considerably curtailed.

Besides the assessment of the topic organization, there were several other observations made of the texts. The number of pages given to study aids was determined for each text, and it was found that in these five texts the authors assigned a considerable amount of space to study aids. The least amount of space so used was around five per cent of the pages, and in four of the five books studied, 10 to 20 per cent of each book was used for this purpose.

A check was made of the relative number of pages assigned to the history of the country since the Civil War and Reconstruction. It was found that in the five textbooks, four of them devoted around 50 per cent of their pages to American History since the Reconstruction. This shift in organization was a necessary

change because there was a large body of important material added to our history by the Second World War and the post-war period. Prior to the Second World War, the practice was to include the Civil War and Reconstruction in the second half of the text making the mid-point of the course the outbreak of the Civil War. A few contemporary writers have even gone so far as to cover to 1900 in the first half of their text; hence, devoting 50 per cent of their space to the happenings since the turn of the century. They justify this on the basis that these are the events which have had the most direct bearing on America today. In the books studied, this more radical course was not followed by any of the authors, but four of them did shift their mid-point some in favor of a greater stress on more recent history.

An investigation was made of the amount of space devoted to Technological and Cultural History. Technological History was included with Cultural History because they are closely related in the American story. The technological developments of the last 150 years have played an important part in shaping our culture. It was found that two of the authors gave 25 per cent or more of their space to this phase of American History and that two others apportioned better than 15 per cent of the pages to it. The fifth writer seemed to have followed the older plan of concentrating on political history. From these facts, it would seem safe to conclude that four of these authors are following a trend toward greater emphasis on cultural history.

Finally, the five textbooks were compared with respect to their systems of organization. Here a very definite trend is revealed, for the unit type of organization was found in all five

books. All of these authors divided American History into large periods which were considered as units. In addition, it was found that four of the texts used a combination of the topical and chronological arrangements in organizing the units. Only one author followed a strict chronological form. This observation has value because the older type of organization was the chronological.

What conclusions may be drawn from the preceding discussion concerning the problem of this study? What trends were revealed? The conclusions made here are true in reality for only five American History high school textbooks analyzed by the criteria established in the study. On the other hand, the textbooks were from well-known publishing houses and are in wide use; hence, the selective nature of the sampling tends to give greater weight to the results than otherwise would be true.

The trends revealed by this study were:

1. A relatively large amount of space was devoted in these books to technological and cultural history.
2. The space allotted in these histories to the depression of the 1930's and the New Deal was considerably curtailed.
3. A substantial percentage of the pages in the texts was assigned to study aids.
4. In the books, the mid-points were arranged so that the material on the Civil War and Reconstruction fell in the first half of the work.
5. The unit type of organization was used in all of the texts.
6. A combination of the chronological and topical organization was favored in these textbooks.

Yesterday in Greenland

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If we turn back the pages of history far enough we will find, probably in a footnote, that Erik the Red discovered Greenland in the year of our Lord 981.

"But forget not," says the apostle Peter,

"that one day is with the Lord as a thousand years, and a thousand years as one day."

Nearly a thousand years ago Erik the Red was cruising up the Tunungdliarfik waterway — only he called it "Eriksfjord." To-day at

Narsarssuak, 61 degrees North, on the headwaters of the thirty-five mile Tunungdliarfik fjord in the southwest Julianehaab District, is located the first of the air bases, BW-1, erected by the United States Army Air Forces Weather Service in Greenland.

Over the hills northward from Narsarssuak are the ruins of "Brattahlid," one-time manor of Erik the Red and for more than three hundred years the judiciary seat of a Norse colony founded by Erik the Red in 985. In the strait between Tunungdliarfik and Bredde Fjord not far from the weather observatory at Narsak, lies "Eriksey" — Erik's Island where Erik the Red made his first landfall.

On April 9, 1941, Denmark gave the United States of America the right to build airfields and weather observatories in Greenland. Ten years later a new 20-year agreement was signed between these two countries for the defence of Greenland and North America. Its strategic importance in the twentieth century has given it more publicity than followed its discovery in the tenth century.

Greenland was discovered in 981 by Erik Thorvaldsson, a native of Norway living in Iceland. Erik was a tenth century jarl, a viking chieftain who usually wore a red kirtle and carried a red square-sail on his dragon ship. From the shores of the North Sea to the Mediterranean he was known as "Erikr Rauda" — Erik the Red. It was Erik the Red who gave the name of *Greenland* to the verdant southwestern fjord region from the southern promontory to the turbulent waters of the Sondre Stromfjord.

At the headwaters of the Sondre Stromfjord, one hundred miles inland, is another air base, BW-8, 67 degrees North. Midway of its course the Sondre Stromfjord is crossed by the Arctic Circle.

Four years after his discovery of the "green" land, Erik the Red organized a colonizing project among his Icelandic friends and migration began at once. Homesites were selected around the many fjords and dwellings were built like the old viking halls in Iceland and Norway. Erik built his hall, byres, sheep-pens and other buildings on a shelf of land at the headwaters of "Eriksfjord" and called his estate "Brattahlid" — the broad slope.

In 990 Erik the Red's Greenland was proclaimed a republic by a Norse population of a thousand or more. The forty-eight year old Erik Thorvaldsson was appointed Chief Magistrate and governor of the new nation.

The United States has been a republic for 180 years. Beginning as a struggling crown colony of England it proclaimed independence in 1776 and set up a republican form of government by its own people patterned after the republic of Switzerland, and it is still a flourishing nation.

Greenland was a republic for 271 years! Beginning as an independent nation with a form of government patterned after the republic of Iceland it flourished until 1261 when it submitted to the inducements of Norway to become a crown colony of that country. Then its struggle for existence commenced. In 1397 at the Union of Kalmar it came under the rule of Denmark.

Called "Land of Desolation" by John Davis in 1585 this same English explorer named the southern promontory "Cape Farewell" and Greenland became for centuries a forgotten country.

At "Brattahlid" in 1001 the first Christian church in the western world was built by Erik the Red's wife, Thjodhild, who was an ardent convert to Christianity. Twenty years later Greenland had its first regionary bishop to minister to a population estimated at 6000 souls. Two regionary, fourteen resident, and sixteen titular bishops were assigned to the diocese of Greenland until the Reformation in 1519.

In 1341 a young Norwegian priest, Sira Ivar Baardsson, was sent to Greenland as assistant to an aged and ailing resident bishop. Shortly after Sira Baardsson's arrival the old bishop died and the administration of ecclesiastical affairs rested on the shoulders of the newcomer. It was at this time that the Norse colonists met with their first unfriendly attack by the Eskimo, called Skrelings by the Norse. Coming down from the North in 1325 they encroached on the farms south of Sondre Stromfjord. This was the beginning of the tragic end of the Norse colony in Greenland augmented by economic conditions in Europe, Norwegian indifference, and climate change.

In the days of Erik the Red, the voyage

from Norway and Iceland to Greenland was a matter of sailing directly west, turning south and following the coast to the ice-free waters of southwest Greenland. In the fourteenth century Sira Baardsson had to issue new sailing instructions: "... now so much ice has come ... no one can follow the old sailing directions who wants to be heard from again ..."

The northerly and eastward course of the warm waters of the Gulf Stream tempers the climate of every land within reach of its thermostatic properties. It is now conceded that there are centuries of fluctuation in the Atlantic passage of these warm waters which materially affect the Arctic and sub-Arctic climate. In the present latter part of the twentieth century there are definite changes in the temperature of the north — it is warmer! The glaciers are receding noticeably and there is less floe ice to contend with off shore.

Sira Baardsson remained in Greenland for more than thirty years. On foot, on horseback, by boat, by reindeer-drawn sled, he traversed the colony from "the easternmost of Greenland" at the southern promontory to the

northernmost farms surrounding the Bredde Fjord. He recorded a description of Greenland in the fourteenth century locating every parish, church, and fjord.

In 1721 a Danish Lutheran missionary, hoping to find descendents of the original Norse colonists, found instead the unmistakable ruins of their homes, churches, and other buildings.

In the early decades of this the twentieth century through the untiring efforts of Danish archaeologists close to two hundred of the old Norse farms have been found and identified. Many of these ruins lie in the shadows of the United States Weather Stations. In the Julianehaab District alone, one hundred and seventeen farms, twelve churches and two monasteries were found. And the Eskimos tell of more buildings that still lie hidden beneath the glaciers!

"For a thousand years in Thy sight, O Lord," sang the Psalmist, "are but as yesterday when it is past."

Yesterday in Greenland Erik the Red was cruising up "Eriksfjord" — only to-day it is called Tunungdliarfik.

Classification for Social Studies Organization

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In any study of curriculum dealing with the social studies one of the first attempts of an investigator is to determine the organization of content. Ultimately the manner in which the content is arranged, together with the sequence and scope, will be reflected in terms of a framework or structure of organization. A major task of curriculum specialists is to develop classifications designating the various forms of organization used in social studies curriculum. A study of these classifications will indicate a lack of agreement and consistency of terminology and concepts. Many specialists in the field of social studies have stated that it is extremely difficult to develop a workable and realistic form of classification. Even within a selected school, the forms of social studies or-

ganization may vary with the grade level or specific teacher.

An attempt was made by the author to develop a social studies classification for elementary schools and to ascertain from this classification current curriculum practices in city schools.

Curriculum organization of the social studies might best be divided into two areas. One area dealing with "general" organization and the second dealing with "internal" organization. This concept of curriculum organization for the elementary school will clarify basic principles of learning in terms that tend to be specific and applicable.

"General" organization may be defined in terms of the over-all framework. Included in

this area would be four classifications which have been generally acknowledged by specialists but occasionally defined in slightly different terms:

1. Separate subject organization (History, geography, and civics are taught separately).
2. Correlated course of study organization (An effort to correlate two or more courses: *e.g.* geography and history are taught as separate subjects, but the relationships between them are pointed out).
3. Fused course of organization (Content is combined under the heading of social studies by obliterating subject boundaries. Materials of instruction and activities are drawn from any field or fields. Accent is on subject-matter mastery, but with no attempt to preserve the separate identity of various subject matter fields).
4. Integrated program (The accent is on important areas, practices, and problems of life. Content of subject matter fields is drawn upon to facilitate the achievement of social studies objectives; namely, to provide accurate information, build desirable attitudes and appreciations, and develop the thinking and doing skills necessary for good citizenship).
3. Organization by cycles — "expanding environment" (Content is based first on the immediate environment, expanding to state, nation, and world. Cycles are frequently repeated in junior and senior high school).
4. Biography (Content dealing with social and historical concepts are developed through the study of great leaders).
5. Social functions (Content is studies in terms of basic social functions found in all types of cultures. Typical functions are transportation, conservation, etc. Note: Social functions do not represent the content).
6. Social processes (Content is arranged and selected to show activities that individuals and groups must perform in daily living. This form of organization is an effort to stress social relationships such as "getting along," "planning," "making choices," etc.).
7. Problem (Content and material are arranged and selected to find an answer to a question or the solution of a problem).
8. Life situation—"needs approach" (Content and its organization will be determined by the teacher and her class in terms of life situations and problems encountered by the children. Content and organization are not generally predetermined).
9. Community project (Content and organization are in terms of projects that utilize the community as a working laboratory to bring about community improvement. This does not refer to mere field trips).

The second area would be in terms of "internal" organization which would determine the approach or principles involved in scope and sequence in the handling of content. This sub-form of organization would necessitate consistency with the "general" form of organization but would clarify to a greater degree the basic principles operating within the classification of general organization. Included would be nine categories:

1. Chronology—"from past to present" (Content is arranged in consecutive order to show how institutions, processes, movements, etc. started, grew and evolved. Content is usually arranged according to date or time periods).
2. Chronology in reverse—"from present to past" (Content is arranged in consecutive order, starting with the present and working back to the past. Content is usually arranged according to date or time periods).

This curriculum classification was used to determine current practice relative to the development of the social studies program. One hundred and forty-eight city school systems throughout the United States participated.

General organization of the social studies in city school system courses of study for grades I-VIII was as follows: Integration—58% to 22%; Fusion—33% to 22%; Correlation—6% to 20%; and Separate subject—3% to 36%. In intermediate and upper grades greater emphasis is placed on subject-matter mastery as opposed to the development of thinking and doing skills which are emphasized in primary grades. On the basis of opinion, city school authorities indicated preference for integration (68%), fusion (17%), correlation (13%), and separate subject (2%).

Internal organization of the social studies in city school system courses of study for grades I-VI was found to be used in the following rank order: (1) cycles (2) social processes (3) social functions (4) problem (5) chronology (6) life situation (7) biography (8) community project (9) reverse chronology.

Internal organization of the social studies for grades VII & VIII in the elementary school was as follows according to rank order: (1) chronology (2) cycles (3) problem (4) social processes (5) social functions (6.5) community project (6.5) life situation (8) biography (9) reverse chronology.

When the city authorities were requested to rate the various forms of internal social studies organization, the following rating was received from the respondents: Excellent—Problem,

social processes, and life situation. Good—Social functions, community project, and cycles. Fair—Chronology, biography, and reverse chronology.

Two very evident trends were found in this study. There is a continued trend in the growth of integration throughout the elementary grades in city school systems. The second trend may be seen by the relatively high rating given the problem approach to internal organization. The cycle approach will undoubtedly continue to be the principal form of organization, particularly in the primary grades where study of the school expands to the home, community, state and nation. However, in the upper elementary grades the authorities indicate considerable desire to develop the scope and content selection in terms of a problem approach.

The Right-to-Work Laws: A Changing Attitude Toward Labor

THOMAS J. HAILSTONES

Xavier University, Cincinnati, Ohio

It is interesting to observe how the attitudes and sentiments of society change. One thing which most individuals consider to be generally constant, is the law which governs our society. But current debate over the "right-to-work laws," which eighteen states have enacted in order to outlaw the union shop, demonstrates how the attitude of our legislators and courts has vacillated over the years.

In the early days of British industrialism common law held that any combination of workers judged to be in restraint of trade was illegal. This "conspiracy doctrine" which applied to labor organizations was crystallized into statutory law in England by a series of combination acts. The first of these acts was passed in the sixteenth century and the last in the year 1800.

As American common law is based upon British common law this restriction against labor unions found its way into America. Although not as generally applied in our country,

the "conspiracy doctrine" was often drawn upon by American courts when they were required to determine the legal status of labor organizations.

In the first four decades of the last century dozens of unions were prosecuted for conspiracy, many of which resulted in convictions.

Not until 1842 was the common law regarding labor organizations modified. In the case of *Commonwealth v. Hunt*, heard before the Massachusetts Supreme Court, it was held that union activity was legal as long as it was not directed toward an illegal end. It was further declared that seeking better wages, hours and working conditions were not illegal ends. This decision at least gave legal recognition to the unions and permitted them to seek legitimate objectives. It also ruled in favor of the closed shop.

By 1880 practically all states had enacted laws nullifying the conspiracy doctrine. But, about this time court injunctions began to

appear in labor disputes. Thereafter the use of labor injunctions practically supplanted the conspiracy charges, and became management's most feared labor weapon.

The Sherman Act of 1890 was designed to prohibit business combinations and collusion directed toward the restraint of trade. In actual practice, this law also turned out to be an effective weapon against union organization. In the Danbury Hatter's Case of 1908 the union was found guilty of violation of the act when the court held boycotting to be a restraint of trade. The union was ordered to pay damages amounting to \$234,000.

The Clayton Act of 1914 which was passed to modify and bolster the Sherman Act fortunately removed unions from coverage of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. Furthermore, it limited the use of the injunction against labor organizations. When enacted it was hailed as labor's "Magna Charta" but it eventually proved to contain several loopholes.

In 1926 The Railway Labor Act set up the mechanism for the settlement of labor disputes in the railroad industry. It also gave the railway workers the right to organize and bargain collectively.

The trend toward more liberalization of the law was accelerated during the 1930's. The Norris-LaGuardia Act of 1932 severely restricted the use of injunction in labor disputes, outlawed yellow-dog contracts, and declared that public policy recognized the right of workers to organize.

In 1932 the National Industrial Recovery Act was passed to help stop the downward spiral of production, employment, income and prices. It gave the President the power to authorize industrial codes which regulated various industries. However, Section 7(a) of the Act stated that each code had to contain a clause granting to the workers the right to organize and bargain collectively with representatives of their choosing.

This gain for labor was short-lived because in the famous Schechter Poultry Case of 1935 the Act was declared unconstitutional on two counts: (1) it misdelegated legislative powers to the President; and (2) it invaded intra-state commerce.

In order to salvage the gains made by labor

under the NRA, Congress quickly passed the National Labor Relations Act. The Wagner Act, as it was called, reiterated Section 7(a) of the NIRA thereby guaranteeing "the right of the workers to organize and bargain collectively with representatives of their own choosing." Furthermore, it established definite unfair labor practices on the part of management. Accordingly, it was an unfair labor practice for management to: interfere with, dominate, discriminate against, or refuse to bargain with labor organizations.

The National Labor Relations Board was established to enforce the act. It solidified all the gains labor had made over the years, and it manifested a complete reversal of the conspiracy doctrine, which had prevailed for several decades. The act was so unlike previous legal principles, that employers believed that the courts would not sustain it. But within a few years it was held to be constitutional on all counts.

The Wagner Act permitted any type of union security clause to be established by collective bargaining. Five common types of such security clauses are: (1) open shop; (2) closed shop; (3) union shop; (4) preferential shop; and (5) maintenance-of-membership shop. These are defined as follows:

1. open shop:
a worker may or may not belong to the union as he desires.
2. closed shop:
a worker must belong to the union as a condition of employment, and must be a union member before he can be hired into the plant.
3. union shop:
a worker must belong to the union as a condition of employment, but a non-union member may be hired into the plant providing he joins the union within a stipulated period, usually 30 to 90 days.
4. preferential shop:
union members are given preference in regard to hire, transfer, promotion, and layoff.
5. maintenance-of-membership:
at the time the labor-management agreement is signed each worker must declare himself to be a union or non-union member. The *status quo* must be maintained during the life of the contract.

After several years of experience with the Wagner Act, some interests began to wonder if it did not give too much power to unions. Eventually, in order to balance the situation the Taft-Hartley Act was passed in 1947. This act retains all the essential rights of labor organizations. However, it also protects management and the workers from certain abuses that existed under the Wagner Act. The new law not only specified unfair labor practices on part of management, but makes the same practices illegal when engaged in by the unions.

Union security clauses are limited by the law. The closed shop and the preferential shop are outlawed on grounds that they constitute discrimination. The union shop and the maintenance-of-membership shop are authorized only when a majority of the workers in a bargaining unit, (such as a plant), approve of them; *and providing that the state in which the plant is located has no law against such security measures.* It is this little trailer that has permitted the rush in many states to pass

"right-to-work laws." In short, the federal law gives way to the state law whenever the latter is more restrictive.

The right-to-work laws assert that it is an essential element of one's right to work, that he be not compelled to join a labor organization as a condition of employment. Several states are considering such laws in addition to the 18 states that have passed them. These laws have the practical effect of outlawing the closed shop, the union shop, and the maintenance-of-membership shop.

In summary it is easy to see that throughout the history of our legal institutions, there has been some question as to the legality of labor organizations. It is evident that the law has quite regularly shifted from one position to another. It appears that we have yet to reach a stable position in the field of labor law and that the right-to-work laws are another stage in the long series of shifts in the legal status of unions.

The Teachers' Page

HYMAN M. BOODISH

Abraham Lincoln High School and The Junto Adult School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Some New Problems in Training For Adult Training

All adults organize their personal worlds on a certain degree of predictability of social events. Although the varied kinds of social change may not always be to the person's liking, the well integrated individual learns to adjust to or accept the change because he has trained himself to foresee it or expect it. The extent of adjustment depends on the relative magnitude of the change as it affects the individual. A person may be able to take in stride such changes as a mild illness of himself or of someone to whom he is closely attached, the growing into maturity of one's children, the change in status of one's friends due to marriage, and transfer from one job to another. But even such changes, as well as others of a more traumatic nature, such as loss of a job, the death of someone dear, or going off to war, when they are sudden and unexpected,

may be disruptive of the individual's inner security. Under such conditions, the person may react in one of three ways, according to Marie Jahoda, writing on: "The Problems of Living in a Changing Society" in the *Journal of the American Association of University Women*, March, 1956.

These three modes of personal reaction to change are:

1. Denial of the change.
2. Withdrawal.
3. Passive conformity (through loss of the inner core of personality).

The adult person's denial of a change is similar to a young child "throwing a temper tantrum" when he rebels against what to him is a sudden and unacceptable change. A mother and father in a sense throw a silent temper tantrum when they "refuse to see" their fifteen-year-old child becoming increasingly independent, and persist in regarding him as

a "cute little one of five and treating him accordingly." Such denials of change (the inability to accept or to face reality) is "self defeating and will inevitably lead to much greater conflict."

Denial, at least, represents, a "positive effort." Withdrawal, on the other hand, is the beginning of ego disintegration. Unwilling or unable to accept the change, or too weak to rebel against it, many persons withdraw altogether from participation in the change.

"Perhaps the increasing apathy that we find in some people with respect to public affairs—disinterest in politics, the very large percentage of non-voters—is a form of meeting change by withdrawal."

Such persons limit their activities to areas where change does not affect them too much or where the "change can be taken in stride. . . . Very often this area is not much more than the immediate personal surroundings, the family, and perhaps the work situation of the individual. The result is often an impoverished life. Withdrawal is self-punishing."

The most serious of these responses is the third: the loss of "the inner core of personality." It represents a greater degree of destructiveness of ego strength even though on the surface it may seem that the individual has adjusted to and accepted the change. But, it is conformity without orientation. Such a person ceases to feel that "he has a place as an individual in the world around him No longer does he get angry at the lack of scope for asserting his individuality. Instead, his inner core is abandoned and the external world takes over. There follows a general drifting with whatever the surroundings dictate. For certain personalities this is much easier than confronting every change and trying to absorb it."

Persons who have been brain-washed by the use of various types of torture techniques, or persons under an hypnotic spell are extreme examples of individuals who have lost the inner core of personality. Both brain-washed persons and hypnotized individuals are products of abnormally induced ego destruction. There are people, however, whose basic personality structure, with respect to social change, is on a plane similar to those who have been brain-

washed or hypnotized. Such people "conform to everything that is suggested, not because of an inner orientation, but because it seems the only thing to do. Compared with this process of dealing with social change, the temper tantrum of the small child is highly desirable. Born out of the wish to conquer a place for oneself in the surrounding world, it is a positive effort.

"This process has been discussed recently in the literature of sociology. Best known, perhaps, is David Riesman's concept of the 'other-directed person,' the person for whom there is no longer any inner core; who does not make an effort to cope with the world around him, but rather gives in to the predominant group pressure."

How to develop more constructive response patterns to unexpected change is a problem faced by every person. A feeling of inner security and a sense of self respect help people to take unexpected social change in stride. In Dr. Jahoda's words:

"Almost by definition, the most helpful way of countering the natural tendency of resentment toward unexpected change is intelligent, informed expectation. Just as the three-year-old is more adaptable to change if you give him advance warning, so will the adult be less frightened, less given to engaging in any of the three processes mentioned, if there is intelligent, informed expectation about ongoing events. To the extent that this intelligent and informed expectation is available his orientation to the external world is less disrupted."

Professor Jahoda discusses several kinds of social change which have a marked impact on people's behavior, particularly in the United States. One has to do with the relationship between parents and children. The expectations that parents and children have of each other even in a relatively changeless society can produce considerable strain when the expected change conflicts with the child's natural development towards adulthood. In the United States, this strain is intensified by the fact that many parents use as a measuring rod values and standards which are primarily European in origin, and consequently conservative, in comparison with American evolved standards and values adopted by their children.

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"As a result of our country's European back-

ground, we traditionally expect *parents* to teach their *children*. Here the teaching process is reversed. Today it is the *children* who teach the parents, although the authority structure and the power structure in the family often still run the other way. This situation can upset the delicate balance of human relationships, even if nothing more important is involved than learning how a space ship works from one's children or grandchildren . . ."

The resulting friction is especially keen between immigrant parents and their native-born offspring. Teachers who have such young people in class are frequently made aware of the bitter hostility and resentment that such children have towards their parents. How to help both parents and children meet these and other unexpected changes in constructive ways has been and continues to be one of our principal social problems.

A second unexpected change discussed in Professor Jahoda's article grows out of the rapid social mobility which our country has experienced in the last two hundred years.

"In the traditional European society, one is born into the middle class, the aristocracy, or the working class, and has a fair expectation that he and his children will stay within that class. The chances for upward and downward social mobility during an individual's lifetime are here more frequent. Persons who move into new and different social circles are confronted with the fact that they can now less reliably predict the behavior of those around them. The strain is by no means restricted to downward social mobility. It frequently occurs in upward mobility."

A third area of change is perhaps the one most significant in so far as it affects the traditional aspects of education for adult citizenship. Mature citizenship in a democracy traditionally carried as a requisite the ability on the part of the individual to make intelligent decisions on important social issues. Intelligent decisions can only be made if the person possesses a sufficient background of knowledge related to the issues. The social change which affects this aspect of adult citizenship is the tremendous rapidity of technological development. In many areas of modern life, where decisions with respect to social issues

have to be made, it is impossible for any one but an expert in that field to make an intelligent decision.

"In technological fields some of us manage to become experts to some extent in some small area, but the complexity of our society makes the achievement of an intelligent and informed expectation of change very difficult, if not impossible . . ."

* * * * *

An editorial in one of our metropolitan newspapers touched on this last problem in connection with the controversy that had arisen during the past year between Mr. Charles Wilson, Secretary of Defense, and certain Congressmen on the question of what constitutes an adequate air defense program. The editorial was appropriately entitled: "A Matter of Judgment." (*Philadelphia Evening Bulletin*, July 2, 1956).

Military preparedness, according to Mr. Wilson "eventually becomes a question of judgment for those in a position of responsibility."

Following through on this theme, the editorial concluded:

"It is all a matter of judgment as to how well prepared we are, how much more armament we need, and what kind of arming. The final decision on this is entrusted to the Secretary. That does not make him infallible; but those in the Senate who prefer to substitute their judgment are not necessarily infallible, either.

"The American public, lost in the unanswerable complexities of the problem, have no choice but to rely on the judgment of those whom they have placed in the position of responsibility."

Part of the function of education for citizenship will increasingly have to do with training people *not* to make decisions about issues whose complexity is beyond their comprehension but rather to select people whose judgment on certain issues can be trusted.

* * * * *

Preparation-for-Marriage Courses In High School

High school courses designed to help prepare young people for marriage and family living are no longer a novelty. More and more schools are recognizing the need for such instruction

to adolescents. A recent study which gives added impetus to this need was reported in *Marriage and Family Living*, May, 1956. The subject of the study was entitled: "Attitudes and Policies Concerning Marriage Among High School Students" (author—Judson T. Landis).

The marriage of boys and girls in their mid and late teens is part of the general trend towards the lowering of the average age for marriage. As reported in the study, the average age in 1890 was 26.1 for men and 22.0 for women. In 1955, the average age was 22.5 for men and 20 for women.

Among the chief reasons for high school marriage, as stated by 286 high school principals who responded to a questionnaire, were:

Increase in lax parental care, discipline and supervision; poor home conditions

The military draft of young men and their uncertainty of plans for the future

Increased glorification of marriage as the solution to all problems

Insecurity of the times

Fad or chain effect of student marriages

Prosperity and availability of employment to youth

Availability of young men with jobs

Desire for adult status and privileges

Emphasis on sex by mass media

Among some of the less frequent reasons given by principals were:

Fear of not having another opportunity to marry

Increased incidence among teen agers of going steady

Permissive attitude of school toward marriage of students

Lack of success in school

Ease of dissolving unsatisfactory marriages

Sociologists studying the trend towards early marriages give the following reasons for its occurrence:

"... the economic prosperity of the past fifteen years, the threat of war and the draft, the imagined man shortage encouraging girls to marry before the boys go into service, spread of birth control, the increased emphasis among movie stars and in magazines upon the importance of marriage and having children..."

What responsibilities do the schools have in this connection? The answers are to be found in other studies which reveal that in general,

teen-age marriages result in more divorces and in lower happiness ratings than post-teen age marriages.

"It would seem," writes Judson T. Landis, "that schools need to take a rational look at the whole question of marriage, student marriages, and pregnancies in high school, and see what school programs make sense in light of the facts."

The Identification and Criticism of Ideas

In the Quarterly Report of the Carnegie Corporation of New York there is a description of a new experiment in a liberal arts education. Started three years ago, at Brown University, the new series of courses are labeled: "The Identification and Criticism of Ideas." This "new adventure in education" is based on two principles:

1. that "most textbooks are hardly worth reading; if not barren of ideas, they are impoverished in that respect."

(Although this is perhaps too sweeping a condemnation of textbooks, there is merit in the belief that college students should be introduced to the thinking of the world's great minds in the original, or as close to it as possible, rather than to an interpretation of them.)

2. that the capacity of students to learn, under proper stimulation, has been underestimated. "Because there is a strong tendency to use the first college year mainly for remedial work, the interest of freshmen is blunted rather than sharpened. This is particularly true of brighter students, who come to college expecting a new and challenging intellectual experience and then often suffer through rehashes of high school courses."

This new venture in education is optional and offered only to freshmen and sophomores. It places emphasis on "independent study, group discussion, and critical writing, reading, and thinking," instead of on "the traditional lecture-recitation method." Lectures are rare and textbooks are abandoned. There are twenty-four "IC" courses. Each course is based on several outstanding books selected from the humanities, social sciences, or natural sciences. Students are of course encouraged to read other books in addition to those that make up the course's requirement. By way of example, "History IC, instead of being the conventional

survey of world history from prehistoric times to the H-bomb, is devoted to the modern state, and is based on reading of Burke, Paine, and Mill." Another course, in political science, is based on Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*.

The results of the experiment are highly promising. Many more students sign up for these courses than was originally expected. Library circulation has increased. The actual performance of most of the freshmen is better than had been expected and more of them are making inquiries about graduate work. Many

of the upper classmen are disappointed because they have not been given the same opportunity.

The response of the faculty is also favorable. "Despite the heavy burden such courses place on teachers . . . most of those participating . . . are excited by them. Many of the teachers, even those who have been graduate instructors, say they had never realized the capacity of their underclassmen, and have found that they can require a great deal more of them than they ever believed possible."

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mt. Vernon, New York

Young America Films, Inc., 18 E. 41 St., NYC., has available the latest group of "You Are There" programs, under an agreement made with CBS Television. Nineteen new "You Are There" titles now become available in 16 mm. film form. Included in this latest group are the following: Spindletop—The First Great Texas Oil Strike, The Chicago Fire, The Discovery of Radium, Washington Crosses the Delaware, Benedict Arnold's Plot Against West Point, The Heroism of Clara Barton, etc. A total of 59 have now been released by Young America Films.

Just published this month is the new Young America Catalog of Teaching Films of 36 pages with descriptions and illustrations of more than 270 16 mm. sound films. Its new Catalog of Filmstrips is attractively designed in two colors, consisting of 24 pages, in which are listed more than 600 filmstrips for a wide variety of curriculum areas and grade levels.

Nine large maps, measuring 50" x 33", each nearly 12 square feet in area, are included in "Hammond's Map Library." The maps are boxed in a booklike map case (9½" x 12½") so that they are convenient to store or carry and are protected. Hammond's Map Library is published by C. S. Hammond & Co., Maplewood, N. J.

FILMS

A Short Vision. 7 min. B&W. or Color. Sale. Brandon Films, Inc., 200 W. 57 St., NYC.

Film makes audience aware of the seriousness of Civil Defense. Helps to bring about better understanding of the A-Bomb.

Romance of Transportation. 11 min. B&W. or Color. Sale or Rental. International Film Bureau, Inc., 57 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill.

The story is told through animation and the different modes of transportation display an amazing change of pace and timing.

Stone Age. 20 min. B&W. Sale. International Film Bureau.

A farmer finds a stone axe used by Stone Age man thousands of years ago and this is compared with a metal axe of modern times.

Bronze Age. 13 min. B&W. Sale. International Film Bureau.

The making of a metal axe as Bronze Age man made it, is shown to illustrate the importance to man of learning to produce metals.

Iron Age. 16 min. B&W. Sale. International Film Bureau.

Featured in this film is a farm house reconstructed in detail from the excavation of a place where an Iron-Age family lived sometime between 500 B.C. and A.D. 43.

Tanganyika Today. 26 min. Color. Sale or Rental. British Information Services. 30 Rockefeller Plaza, NYC.

This is an ancient land, a melting pot of many races, moving steadily ahead to a new life and prosperity.

Britain's Choice. 14 min. Color. Sale or Rental. British Information Services.

This film explains the British electoral and Parliamentary procedure. Included in it are scenes of the destruction of the House of Commons by bombing in 1941 and the opening of the new House by King George VI.

Mau Mau. 20 min. Sound. Color. Rental. British Information Services.

Film depicts the history of Kenya colony, and the efforts made to stamp out the Mau Mau movement. It describes the struggle of Government, settlers and loyal Kikuyu, and the success it has achieved. It makes clear also how the people have suffered under the Mau Mau terror.

FILMSTRIPS

Near East Powder Keg. 57 fr. B&W. Office of Educational Activities, *The N. Y. Times*, Times Square, N. Y.

Examines the social upheaval in the Near East. It deals with the intense nationalism that is a reaction against past Western imperialism and with the growing demand for a better life that threatens the stability of almost every country. It is accompanied by a discussion manual that contains an introduction to the subject, reproductions of each frame, supplementary information on each frame, questions for discussion and suggested reading.

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Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

The Three R's Plus. Edited by Robert H. Beck. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1956. Pp. vii, 392. \$5.00.

There has been so much din recently on why Junior can't read, write, drive safely or attend church regularly and so much censure heaped on the public schools that a volume of this sort might have been of some service had the collective style of almost every contributor been less turgid and languid. It was ostensibly compiled, according to its editor, so that puzzled parents and others could have a "description of just what today's schools and today's teachers

are trying to do — and why." It would be the plucky parent who would voluntarily wade through this book.

The first part treats the theoretical "Changed and Changing Conceptions" while the second section covers the practical aspects of teaching. However, not one practising school teacher has contributed. Moreover, very many elements of difficulty are omitted — poor working conditions, faculty and administrative tensions, external pressures and inadequate salaries. Fortunately, there are some able essays. Edith West emphasizes the necessity of teaching con-

troversial subjects, of taking into active consideration society's needs, the teaching-learning process and the requirements of scholarship and finally, of investing social studies with an air of reality or, in Henry Johnson's words, "making the past real."

Most intriguing is Frederick E. Ellis' "Religion in the Public Schools," a brief but worthy addition to the growing bibliography on that subject. He pits himself against those who want students to race along and pick up a heritage, some morality and a great deal of religion by indoctrinating them with a watered down "common" core of American "spiritual" values. "Religious commitment," he writes, "must come from experience, be tested by the realities of experience and finally, must return to experience to be deepened and enriched." Unfortunately his alternative, an accentuated "ethical thinking," is vague. The parent-reader would need far more concrete information with which to intelligently reject any sentimental or patriotic pleas that his children be taught religion in the public schools. In all, however, this is an occasionally valuable book providing it is read with care and diligence.

MURRAY POLNER

Flushing, New York

American Government in Today's World. By Robert Rienow. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company. Pp. xxxviii, 751. \$5.00.

The author has attempted to fill a gap in the field of political science by preparing a high school text in American government which describes the constitutional system, structure and organization of government, and services performed. He has organized his material in a sequence traditional among college textbooks in the American government field, and is to be commended for abandoning the heavy emphasis frequently placed on the "problem" approach in many high school books. Nevertheless, there are a number of aspects of the text which fail to measure up to the level which might be predicted from the chapter listings in the table of contents.

First, and of greatest importance, the author has failed to convey to his readers a meaningful description of the basic constitutional system.

The unusually small amount of space devoted to the most complicated facet of American government tends to deny to the student a conceptual framework necessary for an intelligent understanding of government. Examples of the result of this may be found in the treatment of the shortcomings of the Articles of Confederation and the chief features of federalism. In the latter, all of the ingredients are included, but in a manner conducive to memorization of facts, not understanding of principles. In the case of the former, numerous shortcomings are listed, but they are presented out of context of the social and economic considerations of the day.

Second, there are statements and explanatory charts presented in a manner that permits the reader to draw erroneous conclusions. The chapter on political parties, for example, includes a chart on party organization depicting a hierarchical arrangement with the national committee at the top and the precinct committee at the bottom. The impression may well be imparted from this that the American party system is unitary rather than federal. A similar error is made with respect to the court system.

The sections of the text devoted to governmental services have been handled well. Particularly useful are the numerous informative charts and tables to be found throughout this section of the book.

It is to be hoped that in any future revision, the author will give serious consideration to a thorough revision of the first nineteen chapters. It should be recognized that no explanation of services is meaningful which fails to describe adequately the governmental system in which these services are provided. Although his efforts have fallen short of the mark, there is reason to believe that the author has taken a first step in alleviating the appalling lack of information that many young people possess regarding the fundamentals of the American governmental system.

ROBERT S. FRIEDMAN

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Congress, Its Contemporary Role. By Ernest S. Griffith. New York: New York University Press, 1956. Pp. xvi, 207. \$3.50. Revised Edition.

The author of this book addresses himself to an appraisal of Congress as it faces a threefold task. The elements of this task are: to fight the cold war at the world level; to prevent special interests from destroying national unity and prosperity at the domestic level; and to maintain its own position against the ascendancy of the executive branch with its dramatic presidents and powerful bureaucracies.

Mr. Griffith brings in verdicts in favor of Congress on all counts. He points to the bipartisan approach to foreign policy. "The only arguments," he writes, "seem to be concerned with which party has most co-operated with the President . . ."

A valuable section is devoted to the various procedures, formal and informal, which Congress has developed for maintaining national harmony in the face of pressure from special interest groups. He appears to vitiate his argument, however, by casting Congress in the role of protector of local autonomy, which role he says has been abdicated by the Supreme Court. Have not the state and local governments been the favorite target of special interests?

Concerning executive-legislative relations, the author points to the development of a permanent professional staff of experts which have been attached to the standing committees. These, he maintains, provide the weapon with which Congress can offset the domination of the executive branch with its technically trained bureaucracy. He is himself the director of the Legislative Reference Service of the Library of Congress.

SAMUEL M. BRODSKY

Abraham Lincoln High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Present-Day Psychology. By A. A. Roback. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. 995. \$12.00.

This volume was designed as a survey of research and thinking in the discipline of psychology today. Under the editorship of Dr. Roback a number of authors have written 40

chapters on a wide variety of topics. The majority of these topics are of current interest and importance in the science and profession of psychology, but an interesting minority of the chapters are on rather highly specialized problems of less than central interest.

Part I of the book is devoted to the material and topics of general psychology. There is then a section of chapters on the various fields of psychology, *e.g.* child psychology, social psychology, parapsychology (*sic*). A third part, consisting of 12 chapters, is devoted to dynamic and clinical psychology. There are two brief chapters devoted to methods, one of which is inappropriately classified under such a title. The fifth part of the book contains six chapters on "psychological borderlands and humanistics."

The range of topics treated is quite extensive, although the balance of emphasis does not appear to the reviewer to reflect the balance that characterizes present-day psychology. Many well known scientific leaders have served well as contributing authors to the volume, and there is much standard and good reference material here. There is, however, an undesirable lack of uniformity among the presentations, and some are quite spotty and rather superficial. There is also a critical omission of any chapter material on learning and on motivation, two central problem areas in modern general psychology.

The task of the editor of such a symposium is a very difficult one. Dr. Roback quite apparently knew what he wanted from his authors, but he did not get it. Nor did he edit it into the shape of a well ordered and well organized reference. There is an annoying lack of cross references in the book, where more than one chapter devotes space to a single topic. Another and greater annoyance is the amazing lack of a subject index, which would have permitted much greater usefulness of the book as a reference. To the trained psychologist and to the serious student the book will be interesting and of value in some sections. It cannot, however, be said to serve the educated layman as a balanced depiction of the present state of the science and profession of psychology.

T. G. ANDREWS

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Cultural Values of American Ethnic Groups.

By Sister Frances Jerome Woods. New York: Harper & Brothers, c. 1956. Pp. xii, 402. \$4.50.

The idea of this book is excellent; namely, in the "helping professions" a basic knowledge of cultural values is essential if the working relationship between practitioner and client is to be effective — in analyzing case situations, establishing rapport with clients, and determining plans of treatment. Growing out of an institute on "Cultural Factors in the Caseworker-Client Relationship" at the Texas State Social Welfare Conference in 1953, the book essays a summary of the dominant American cultural values and a rather extensive description of the cultural values among our Oriental, Mexican, European, Jewish, and Negro ethnic groups. Eight of the sixteen chapters deal with the family: family types, mate selection and marriage, paternal and maternal roles, parent-child relationships, sex differentiation, etc. of the various ethnic groups; five chapters deal with religious, governmental, economic, recreational, and educational values.

Even so, the book hardly comes off. To the initiated, it will seem almost too simple; to the less sophisticated practitioners for whom it appears mainly intended, the significance of these cultural values for the specific decisions they face will remain vague. Prodigious effort went into documentation (the bibliography runs to 327 items, and footnotes run as high as 111 in a single chapter), but a certain impression of amateurishness remains. The author herself suggests an overemphasis on the Mexican group, attributing it to the availability of material, though surely there is as much on the Puerto Ricans, who are skipped over with scarcely a mention, and on various European groups, who, except for those who are Jewish, are treated sketchily, to say nothing of the extensive research on the Negroes, some of the best of which is scarcely tapped.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Maryland

International Migrations. By Donald R. Taft and Richard Robbins. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1955. Pp. 567. \$7.00.

This important book attempts to survey human migration from an international point of view. Perhaps no book since W. S. and E. S. Woytinsky's *World Population and Production* was published in 1953 has offered so much valuable commentary on human migration in terms of the social processes involved; world migratory movements since World War I; immigration problems in the United States and future migration policies for the world. Approximately one half of the book is devoted to a combined historical and sociological analysis of population movements and their relation to great world problems of the last two centuries. The authors emphasize the importance of two great world wars in these movements and the possible effect of a greater and third world war. Displaced persons, refugee programs, the influence of mass migrations upon the birth of Pakistan and upon the state of Israel highlight these facts. They show clearly that despite the trend in recent years for national states to slow down or to seriously restrict immigration important international events have changed such policies. World statesmen no longer can be complacent about such population movements as the Asian continent on the move with its teeming millions, the diverse colored population of Africa stirring with the fire of nationalism in their hearts and the uncovering of so many examples of ethnic and racial minorities in the Soviet Union under Communist exploitation. Taft and Robbins clearly point out this type of Russian exploitation of subject ethnic groups and American foreign policy makers would do well to emphasize these factors in our overseas propaganda efforts.

In the second half of the book an excellent account of America's immigration policies is developed from both a national and an international point of view. Much of this material is of a reference nature but in the last two chapters the authors brilliantly present seven major considerations which they believe need to be weighed in order to formulate future migration policies in the national interest. Summed up, they include freer migration planned and directed by an international organization, and the development of policies which will be based upon an understanding of the larger social processes reflecting the intelligent progression of society toward its

basic goals. Certainly the day of mass migration and huge population exchanges is not over. With the development of atomic energy for peacetime use and the opening up of imaginative new frontiers of science the world can expect migratory movements to continue to present complex problems. These problems can only be efficiently and humanely solved if they are handled apart from racial, religious and nationalistic biases. The work of the United Nations, the International Labor Organization and the hundreds of groups within the U. S. and other countries which have successfully helped their governments settle these complex problems in recent years can be more effective if the world realizes the necessity of working out problems on an international level. This book makes a significant contribution in that respect. It is, then, useful both as a valuable reference tool for demographers and sociologists and as an important compendium of ideas for students, teachers and just plain citizens of any country of the world. The authors have written this book from a rich background of scholarship and teaching experience in sociology and anthropology.

GLENN A. MCLAIN

Richmond, Kentucky

Oil for the Light of the World. By Frank Hart. New York: Vantage Press, 1956. Pp. 296. \$3.50.

The author, a well-known professor emeritus of educational administration at the University of California, has turned his talents to new pursuits in venturing into the world of fiction. His first novel is certainly not a "typical" novel in any sense of the word. Some readers may interpret the work as being primarily allegorical. It is the reviewer's opinion, however, that Dr. Hart, desperate as he sees much that he values as good and as truly American swept away by the onrushing present, has attempted to concoct a story with a moral and a message that will appeal to and be read by the man on the street. The author desires to convince non-professional readers, through the heroine Susie (the only female but "oh what a girl" character in the book), that important steps need to be taken now to turn citizens toward the thinking

and the effort which will bring needed research and progress in the field of the behavioral or social sciences so that the study of man will catch up with world-shaking developments in the areas of the physical sciences and technology.

In an attempt to gain and hold readers towards this goal, rather erudite for a novel, Professor Hart has pulled out all the stops. It is a fabulous story but certainly more credible than much that one now finds on the fiction bill of fare, and the book does reflect a most worthy aim—the creation of a great foundation dedicated to the science of humanity and to mankind's victory over the many adversities which beset the race.

If the reader will hang on through an opening chapter which describes the creation of a gigantic, utopian drive-in, which may not attract some readers, in the second chapter he will find such interesting events as a cowboy-carhop love affair, an exciting "shooting" of an oil well, and the lassoing of an enemy submarine! From then on the story moves with rapidity, including a number of flash-backs into the marvelous story of Susie, the trapeze artist and circus queen who becomes a leading sociologist and the inspirational force behind the creation of the Lone Star Foundation.

High school pupils, as well as some of their mentors, may enjoy reading this novel which for once is *really different*. When finished they will be out of breath but without question will have many ideas to ponder. Among them will be the query as to what will happen next in the sequel which Dr. Hart must certainly have up his writer's sleeve.

RICHARD E. GROSS

Stanford University
Stanford, California

The Age of Reform: From Bryan to F. D. R. By Richard Hofstadter. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1955. Pp. 328. \$4.50.

The New Deal was not a lineal descendent of the Populism of the 1890's or of the Progressive movement which extended from 1900 to 1914. This is Richard Hofstadter's conclusion after assessing the participants of that tradition in the light of the work they did and the place they established for themselves in the stream

of American history.

Professor Hofstadter's assessment rather convincingly leads his reader to agree with him. Populism is set in a Jeffersonian and agrarian tradition, militantly viewing a conspiracy against it. It is a counter-ideology of urban resentment. Progressivism is viewed as a middle class movement, led by professionals (clergy, teachers, lawyers) who were alienated by the new and powerful status of the captains of industry. That the new status of the industrialists was attributable to the traditional "ethos of personal responsibility" was particularly disconcerting. Progressives reacted by manifesting an impulse toward popular rule. But, too frequently, popular rule was without meaning because it was divorced from a specific social program.

The New Deal differed from the Populist-Progressive tradition. It was "... a product of that overorganized world which had so much troubled the Progressives. The trend toward management, toward bureaucracy, toward big-business everywhere had gone so far that the efforts to reform itself had to be consistent with it..." Also, it had a pragmatic spirit. In so defining the Deal, Professor Hofstadter criticized the Populist-Progressive tradition for its moral absolutism, its ambiguous character, its impossible standards, its struggle against conspiratorial forces. But the author recognizes that it achieved a purpose. It was a part of the liberal tradition which "first broadened the numbers of those who could benefit from the great American bonanza and then to humanize its workings and heal up its casualties." Still, the author wants to make clear that the deconversion from Populist-Progressive reform to subsequent reaction was a development of certain tendencies that had existed all along — "... hatred to Europe and Europeans, racial, religious, and nativist phobias, resentment of big business, trade-unionism, intellectuals, the Eastern seaboard and its culture..." Such a deconversion can readily be seen in the lives of such men as Gerald P. Nye, Burton K. Wheeler, Tom Watson, Jack London, and William Randolph Hearst.

The Age of Reform is indeed refreshing and, of course, beautifully written. It is a real contribution to a better understanding of recent

American history. Correctly it chastizes the historian for having generalized too haphazardly about the political blood-line that existed between the Populist, Progressive and New Deal movements. Of course, many historians will still contend that the similarities of the three movements far outweigh the dissimilarities.

R. H. BAUER

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

From Vienna to Versailles. By L. C. B. Seaman. (Methuen, 1955. Pp. 211) and *The Struggle for Mastery in Europe, 1848-1918.* By A. J. P. Taylor. (Oxford, 1954. Pp. 638. \$7.50).

It is a happy coincidence that these commendable books should be published concurrently. Both concentrate on the politics of international affairs, but each complements the other. Where Taylor analyses the broad details of European rivalries from 1848 to 1914, Seaman furnishes a synthesis of recent historical thought about the period from 1848 to 1920.

Seaman challenges "... the idea that there was such a thing as a 'congress system'; that middle class discontent caused the 1848 revolutions; that Napoleon III overthrew the Second Republic; that the Crimean War was caused by the decline of the Turkish Empire; that Bismarck unified Germany and that Cavour wanted to unify Italy; ... and that the 1919 settlement weakened central and eastern Europe by 'balkanizing' it." (p. ix) This endeavor appears on close scrutiny to be less revolutionary than a glance would suggest, but Seaman succeeds in forcing the reader to re-appraise this period. Although most history masters are innocent of the mistaken thinking Seaman calls to attention, many will confess to leaving these impressions in the minds of students.

As a companion volume to Seaman's sweeping resumé, *The Struggle for Mastery in Europe* explains the points at issue in international diplomacy between 1848 and 1918. The author characterizes the period as one of struggle for balance of power. This balance was determined by the Great Powers, the test of a Great Power being strength for war (p. xxiv). In this crucial test population was

all important and while France was alarmed at German numbers, Germany was awed by Russia's. This book provides a brilliant survey of the events leading to World War I.

Those acquainted with Taylor's *The Course of German History* and his *The Hapsburg Monarchy, 1815-1918*, will not be disappointed with his most recent work. Pungent expression combined with penetrating observations make Taylor's book good reading all the way. Although background material on the political and social developments within nations cannot be included, they are implicit through their effects. Thus we see Russian attempts to regain face, after the Crimean War shattered the myth of Russian power; the rise of Prussia under Bismarck's opportunism; the decline of French power and the vacillation of British policy as expressions of internal tensions.

Both books are well provided with maps. Each is worth any student's attention.

WILLIAM E. MILLER

St. Paul, Minnesota

Debates with Historians. By Pieter Geyl. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. xiii, 241. \$7.50.

During the past decade Professor Pieter Geyl of the University of Utrecht has gained distinction among historians for his *Napoleon For and Against*, several scholarly works on the history of the Netherlands, and a growing number of historiographical essays. Fortunately, the latter have now been collected in his *Debates with Historians*, eleven of which have hitherto appeared in English in various scholarly journals.

These stimulating essays provide a rich and varied diet. They range all the way from an analysis of four great nineteenth century historians—Ranke, Macaulay, Carlyle, and Michelet—to a discussion of Arnold Toynbee, the writers of Netherlands history, historical inevitability, and the American Civil War. Unrelated as these topics might seem, they do have much in common, since all of them seek to answer some of the basic questions of historiography—What is the function of history? What is the role of the historian?

In his evaluation of nineteenth century historians, he vigorously refutes the accusation

that Ranke's writings contained the seeds of Hitler's National Socialism. He regards Macaulay, the brilliant spokesman of the philosophy of progress and utility, as "wilfully one-sided" and indifferent "to unfamiliar and uncongenial aspects of life." The tragedy of Carlyle, he believes, lay in the fact that "this man, shrinking at the spectacle of the world such as it was—struggling and imposing tasks upon himself in order to get at the pure core of things, ended up in a dream world, empty, it might be, of all modern illusions, but which mocked his earnest efforts with grinning shadows, true gods in his imagination only." (p. 55). While Geyl is attracted to Michelet, whom he will "only take with my eyes open," he maintains that the noted French historian contributed to the growth of the French revolutionary cult, which, in the long run, has had a malign influence on subsequent French political developments.

Geyl rejects the current interpretation that religious differences were solely responsible for the division of the Low Countries into a Protestant Holland and a Catholic Belgium. "It is not because the South was Catholic and the North Protestant that the rebellion failed here and succeeded there: it is because the rivers enabled the rebellion to entrench itself in the North, while Spain recovered the provinces situated on the wrong side of the strategic barrier. . . ." (p. 184). In his essay on the Civil War, Geyl challenges several aspects of J. G. Randall's thesis that the conflict was not inevitable.

There is much in Toynbee that Geyl admires,—his vast learning, his fertile mind, and his brilliant conceptions and suggestions. But he insists that the author of *A Study of History*, which has been widely read and quoted as "sound doctrine" by many Americans, is not an historian at all but rather "a prophet who usurps the name of historian. . . ." (p. 178). In three devastating and penetrating essays, Geyl takes issue with Toynbee's fundamental approach to the past, which he finds neither "empirical" nor "scientific" but historically "unsound" and full of contradictions and distortions. The grandiose pattern of the past, together with the "challenge and response theory" to explain the rise and fall of civiliza-

tions, merely exist in the mind of the author and have no foundation in reality. Among many other criticisms of Toynbee—too numerous to be cited here—Geyl opposes the idea of historical inevitability, questions the assumption that western civilization has been on the decline since the Renaissance, and defends the writing of national history.

In *Debates with Historians* Geyl reveals himself as a brilliant analyst of historical method and theory. But more than that: his own modest approach to history, which he regards as infinite and unfixable, impresses the reader with its sanity and reasonableness. Indeed, here is a book that can be read with profit by every student of history.

RICHARD H. BAUER

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

The Government and Administration of North Carolina. By Robert S. Rankin. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1955. Pp. xvi, 429. \$4.95.

This book is one of the American Commonwealth Series, edited by W. Brooke Graves. As such it represents one of several dedicated to disseminating adequate information regarding each of the individual states and major territories which comprise our national domain.

Starting with a summary of the various geographical, historical, agricultural and industrial aspects of the state, Professor Rankin launches into an analysis and explanation of the legislative and executive functions of North Carolina. Further chapters are devoted to such important phases of this state's government as the revenue system, law enforcement, courts, public education, agriculture, municipal government, licensing and others. Each chapter—there are twenty-seven in all—is complete, concise, effectively organized and adequately documented. A final chapter portrays the relationship of the state to the federal government and to the bordering states.

As stated by editor Graves and developed by Dr. Rankin: "The states have always been, and they are today, the key units in American federalism." For those persons interested in the structure and function of North Carolina's government, this volume will serve as a text

as well as a source and history book. Well indexed and with a chronology and complete bibliography, it will introduce the student to a number of the phases of this state's governmental operations. Though it is not an exhaustive study of any one aspect, it is, nonetheless, sufficient in scope and depth to depict a vast, fundamental body of knowledge about the people and the state of North Carolina. Very frank, it states the ramifications and manifestations of such problems as the one-party system in actual operation, gubernatorial limitations, inconsistency of judicial operations and lack of state planning. Throughout the book the author's ability to couple factual data with anecdotal accounts is effectively employed, much to the reader's delight. This book will certainly be an important contribution to those who are concerned with and involved in the field of political science and public administration.

JACK R. FRYMIER

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

The Making of Today's World. Hughes. Revised by C. H. W. Pullen. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1956. Pp. x, 789.

The Making of Today's World very vividly illustrates the exciting panoramic history of Western civilization. Historic concepts are introduced in the beginning followed by an explanation of pre-historic time. The text describes the Egyptian Empire in detail and continues with chronological certainty through the pageantry of time. Each significant historical development is punctuated with accounts of the world's great and movements which developed our present and will shape our future. Dr. Pullen did not stop with giving his reader an excellent description of important events; he built functional study guides—thought provoking questions—at the most important parts of the chapters. To have an intelligent understanding of a topic or important area, outstanding dates were compared and contrasts were illustrated.

Many beautiful, colored historical maps guide the reader on his itinerary through the pages of his choosing. The pictures are excellent and very expressive—the choice is in the

best of taste! Seventeen pages of Time Chart dated 4000 B.C. to A.D. 2000 show the year, event, people and culture of any one time between the dates mentioned. In critical areas such as the history of Nazi Germany the author was fair. Readers saw a powerful Germany, not some convenient whipping boy.

New Conditions in the Far East and History's Message for the Future leave us with a feeling that there is much to be accomplished in the future and that there is much to be understood about man and his historical place in life. I trust fate will help United States education and society by placing a copy of *The Making of Today's World* in the hands of every young serious student of history, high school student and interested adult. With this book America has a bright future and its high ethical, reliable material is a credit to the profession.

HARRY GRANSBACK

Lincoln High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Patterns of a New Philosophy. By Frederick Mayer and Frank E. Brower. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1955. Pp. 112. \$4.00.

This is a short book, interestingly written, by two philosophers who are widely acquainted with the history of philosophy and who love to use history anecdotally to illustrate specific points. Indeed, the book consists largely of short excursions into history grouped around a series of general, loosely related principles of philosophy and education advocated by the authors. They admit to being influenced chiefly by three men: Epicurus and Jesus positively and Nietzsche negatively. Some of their principal convictions are represented in the following: "The ideal of conversion is as important in philosophy as in religion." (p. 23) "... philosophy should cease to be esoteric and the property of the few." (p. 23) "We believe that the fundamental problem of philosophy is the nature of man." (p. 24) "Philosophers thus must not only describe the conditions of life, but they must work incessantly to improve the quality of life." (p. 28) "We do not believe that progress is automatic. . . . Our confidence in ultimate progress . . . is the *quality* of man's

spirit and man's idealism." (p. 29) "Our view of progress and creativity presupposes indeterminism." (p. 30) Rather than primarily training the intellect, "our own viewpoint is . . . that education should be concerned with the training of the head, heart, and hands." (p. 41) "Our own philosophy is teacher-centered. In the course of our experience we have never met an unteachable student, but we have met unteachable teachers." (p. 44) "What matters in education, above all, is drama . . . the drama of conviction, enthusiasm and eloquence. Every prospective teacher should be required to take courses in speech and dramatics. Education is sixty per cent communication and forty per cent inspiration." (p. 45) "To be truly civilized in philosophy is to become disenchanted regarding absolute truth claims. Many of the metaphysical systems have only poetic value." (p. 61) "We conceive of God, then, as the antecedent impulse of creativity, as the light in man which directs our uncertain pilgrimage. God also is the consequent goal, the ideal towards which humanity is moving." (pp. 83-84)

The authors are apparently Idealist in their orientation, for the connection between their philosophic concepts and their recommendations for practice is inspirational and hortatory rather than precisely logical or operational (for example, see pp. 45-46). This characteristic may be due to their preference for more attention to art and aesthetics than to epistemology. In the latter half of the book they provide an interesting discussion of the values to be found in current literature (Ch. 7), in current religious views (Ch. 8), and in mysticism (Ch. 9). The last chapter concludes with ten recommendations for the improved teaching of philosophy in colleges.

The title of the book suggests some first steps in the creation of a new philosophy. The reader who holds this expectation will be disappointed, for nothing systematic is attempted in this direction. Rather, the authors concentrate on developing in the reader a more positive and hopeful attitude toward philosophy and its uses. A more accurate title for the entire book would be *Patterns of New Uses of Philosophy*.

LAWRENCE G. THOMAS

Stanford University
Stanford, California.

HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS

BOOKNOTES

A Night to Remember. By Walter Lord. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1955. Pp. 410. \$3.50.

The night was April 14, 1912; the episode was the sinking of the *Titanic*. A book that every teacher should read.

PAMPHLETS

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